ARMY HISTORY AND HERITAGE

General Paul E. Funk II, United States Army

ARMY HISTORY AND HERITAGE

Foreword by General Paul E. Funk II, United States Army

Center of Military History
United States Army
Washington, D.C. 2022

FOREWORD

This book is dedicated in honor and in memory of General William W. Hartzog, the ninth commanding general of the Training and Doctrine Command and a historian at heart. He wrote the initial version of this book, *American Military Heritage*, "to provide a reference that could help drill instructors and other Army leaders instill an appreciation for the lore and traditions that make up the Army's rich heritage."

The study and understanding of military history and appreciation of our proud and rich heritage are critical to personal and professional growth for soldiers. They are the foundation that allows us to expand our expertise within the profession of arms. They lay the cornerstone for our personal contribution to our Army, and give us the means to leave it in a better place than we found it.

We stand on the shoulders of the exceptional men and women, who, for nearly 250 years, have made history and forged our shared heritage. Our history is our incredible legacy. It connects the current generation of soldiers to our departed but not forgotten brethren. It demonstrates that no matter how much time has passed, we continue to be the most lethal and powerful Army in the world. History reminds us that we serve for something far greater than ourselves and that we are willing to endure incredible sacrifices for the love of our great nation.

A professional Army continuously strives for excellence and self-improvement. Learning from significant historical events can be painful, informative, and incredibly inspirational. Let us strive to learn from the lessons of those proud warriors who came before us, so that we never need to relive the trials of the past.

Victory Starts Here!

Fort Eustis, Virginia
7 January 2022

GENERAL PAUL E. FUNK II
17th Commanding General,
U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command

CHAPTER 2

PRESERVING THE NATION: THE ARMY IN CONTINENTAL CONFLICTS, 1817–1890

by Mark L. Bradley

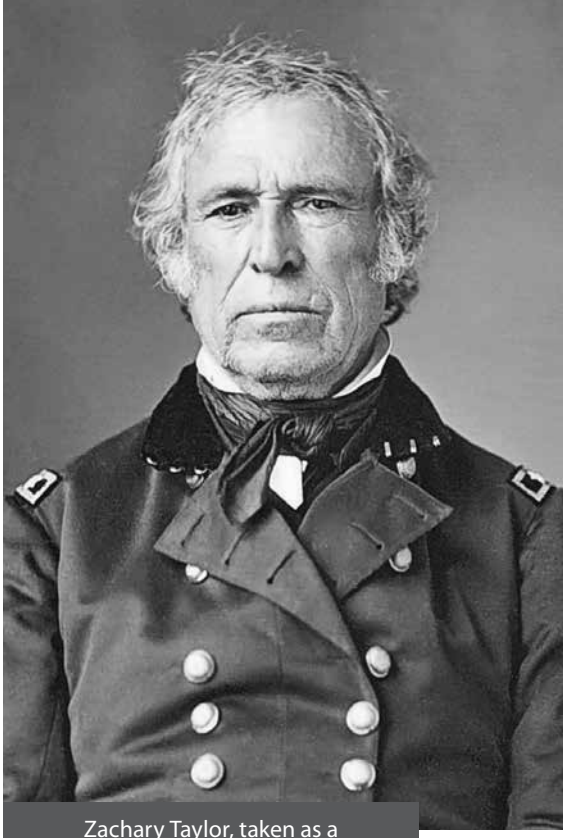
After the War of 1812, the Army continued to build coastal forts to discourage invasion from the sea, even as it shifted its focus to the southern and western frontiers. Although its soldiers often served as a buffer between contentious settlers and Native Americans, the Army also moved tribes from their lands when the U.S. government ordered it to do so. For example, the Army removed the Cherokee from their ancestral homes in the southeast to present-day Oklahoma. The Army sometimes had to battle tribes that refused to surrender their land. From 1817 to 1858, regulars and militia fought three wars to drive the Seminoles from their homeland in Florida.

In addition to serving as a frontier constabulary, the Regular Army contributed in numerous ways to the young Republic's development. Army officers such as John C. Frémont explored the western frontier, making maps and collecting data that opened the vast regions west of the Mississippi River to settlement.

Until 1824, the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, New York, was the foremost engineering college in the country. It produced qualified graduates who surveyed and directed numerous building projects, from roads, bridges, canals, and railroads to lighthouses and river and harbor improvements. Two of the engineers' most notable civic structures were the U.S. Capitol dome and the Washington Monument. Engineers also served as custodians of public lands. In addition to training engineers, the Army developed expertise in its officer corps through a reformed course of instruction at West Point under the guidance of the longtime superintendent, Col. Sylvanus Thayer. It also established branch schools and professional journals.

Portrait of John C. Frémont, pictured as a major, by George P. A. Healy, n.d.
(*Union League Club of Chicago*)

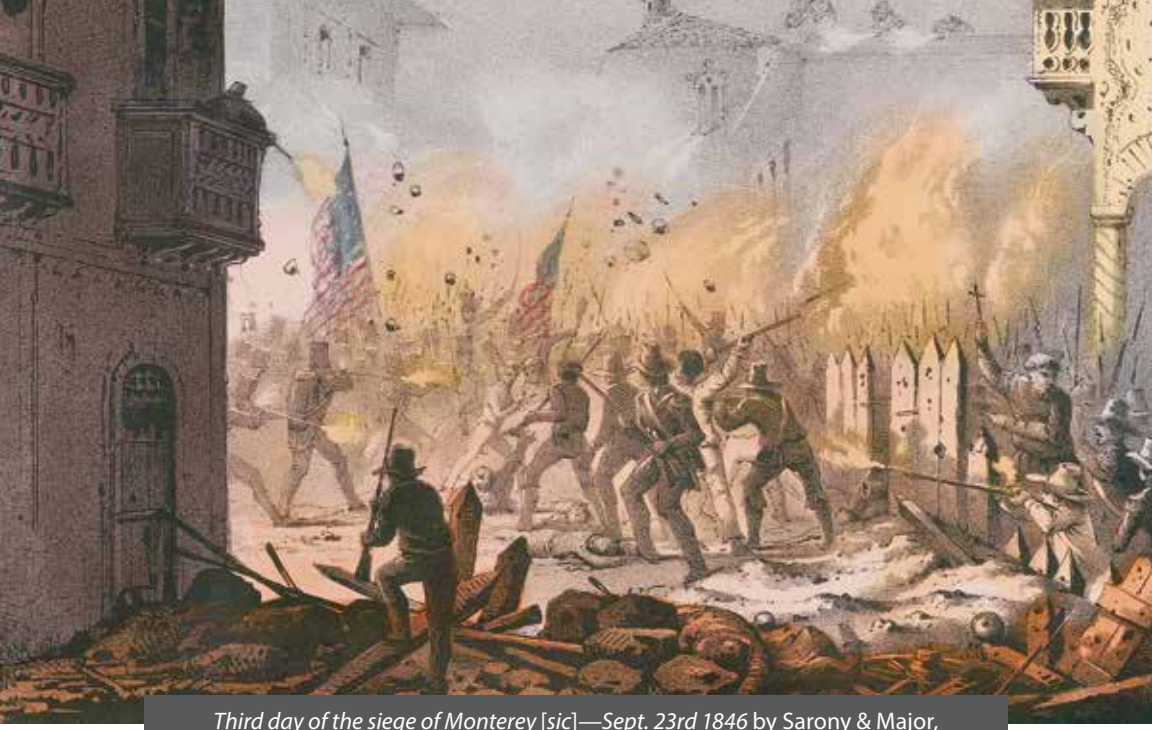
In response to the British capture of Washington, D.C., during the War of 1812, Congress in 1816 appropriated more than $800,000 for an ambitious group of seacoast forts known as the Third System. The U.S. Army Corps of Engineers—under the direction of Simon Bernard, a French military engineer, and Brig. Gen. Joseph G. Totten, the chief engineer of the U.S. Army from 1838 to 1864—designed and built most of the forty-two forts. Constructed mainly of masonry, these third-generation forts were more durable and much larger than the forts in the first two systems, boasting two to four tiers of cannons compared to just one tier. Because of their size and complexity, these massive structures took decades to build. By the time of the Civil War, improvements in weapons technology had rendered these and other brick-and-mortar forts obsolete.



Zachary Taylor, taken as a brigadier general (*Heritage Auction Galleries*)

The Army's newfound professionalism made it an effective instrument of American expansion. In 1846, President James K. Polk stationed a small army led by a future U.S. president, Brig. Gen. Zachary Taylor, near the Rio Grande to pressure Mexico into accepting the river as the boundary between the two countries. Nicknamed "Old Rough and Ready," Taylor enjoyed a growing reputation as a combat commander dating back to the Second Seminole War. When hostilities erupted in May 1846, Taylor's force quickly showed its mettle, especially the "flying artillery" of cannons pulled by horses. Their superior mobility and firepower wreaked havoc on the Mexican army. By June, Taylor had earned a promotion to major general. At Palo Alto, Resaca de la Palma, Monterrey, and Buena Vista, enlisted soldiers demonstrated their toughness and resiliency, and the new officer corps provided skillful leadership. Farther north, Col. Stephen W. Kearny's Army of the West secured California and the future Arizona and New Mexico for the United States.

Despite Taylor's and Kearny's victories, Mexico refused to admit defeat. So President Polk sent a third army under Maj. Gen. Winfield



Third day of the siege of Monterey [*sic*]*—Sept. 23rd 1846* by Sarony & Major, lithographer (*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Divison*)

Scott to invade the Mexican heartland from the Gulf Coast. The objective was Mexico City. During Scott's brilliant march on the Mexican capital in 1847, American soldiers again displayed superb fighting qualities at Veracruz, Cerro Gordo, Churubusco, and Chapultepec, and their officers distinguished themselves as scouts, engineers, staff officers, military governors, and combat troop leaders. The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, signed on 2 February 1848, ended the Mexican-American War. In exchange for an indemnity of $15 million, Mexico ceded 55 percent of its territory—parts of Arizona, California, Colorado, Nevada, New Mexico, Texas, and Utah—to the United States.

Political disputes over whether the new territories would be free or slave states heightened the tensions that led to the Civil War. A succession of slavery-fueled controversies further polarized northern and southern states in the 1850s, including the Fugitive Slave Act, the Kansas-Nebraska Act, the U.S. Supreme Court's Dred Scott decision, and the abolitionist John Brown's raid on the federal armory in Harpers Ferry, Virginia (later West Virginia). Claiming the election of Republican presidential candidate Abraham Lincoln in the fall of 1860 threatened the continuation of slavery in the United States, seven lower South states seceded from the United States and formed the Confederate States of America.


MEXICAN-AMERICAN WAR
1846–1847
Battle
Disputed Territory
0 100 200 300 400
Miles
Missouri River
UNORGANIZED TERRITORY
Bent's Fort
Pueblo
Taos
Albuquerque
Las Vegas
Santa Fe
Isleta
Peralta
Socorro
Brazito
El Paso del Norte
Boundary Claimed by Texas
Boundary Claimed by Mexico after 1836
Rio Grande
Arkansas River
Red River
MISSOURI
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
ARKANSAS
Memphis
Fort Smith
Mississippi River
MISSISSIPPI
ALABAMA
Fort Jesup
TEXAS
LOUISIANA
New Orleans
Austin
Houston
San Antonio
San Jacinto
Goliad
Chihuahua
Corpus Christi
Monclova
Palo Alto
8 May 1846
Fort Texas
Mier
Camargo
Resaca de la Palma
9 May 1846
MEXICO
Saltillo
Monterrey
Matamoros
Parras
Monterrey
21–24 Sep 1846
Buena Vista
22–23 Feb 1847
GULF OF MEXICO
Mazatlan
Victoria
San Luis Potosi
Tampico
Mexico City
Perote
Jalapa
Cerro Gordo
Puebla
Veracaaruz
See Scott's Campaign on pages 84–85
PACIFIC OCEAN
GUATEMALA

Map 1

Bombardment of Fort Sumter, Charleston Harbor: 12th & 13th of April, 1861 by Currier & Ives, c. 1861 (*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)

Secessionists distrusted Lincoln because of his antislavery views. "I think slavery is wrong, morally and politically," he said in 1859. "I desire that it should be no further spread in these United States, and I should not object if it should gradually terminate in the whole Union." In contrast, the vice president of the Confederacy maintained that the "cornerstone" of the new government "rests upon the great truth, that the negro is not equal to the white man; that slavery—subordination to the superior race—is his natural condition."

The Civil War began on 12 April 1861 with Confederates firing on Fort Sumter in Charleston Harbor, South Carolina. The commander of the U.S. Army garrison, Maj. Robert Anderson, surrendered the fort on the thirteenth. On 15 April, President Lincoln issued a call to the loyal states for volunteers to put down the "insurrection," prompting four upper South states to secede and join the Confederacy. The Regular Army entered the conflict numbering only 16,000 officers and enlisted soldiers, and Lincoln's initial call for 75,000 volunteers serving a ninety-day enlistment was only the beginning of the buildup. During the war, over two million soldiers served in the Army.

The desire for a swift end of the war led the U.S. Army to take the field before it had trained its citizen-soldiers for combat. The defeat of U.S. forces at Bull Run, Virginia, and at Wilson's Creek, Missouri, in the summer of 1861 showed the need for professional officers such as Maj. Gen. George B. McClellan to begin the arduous process of transforming volunteers into soldiers.

In its efforts to restore the United States in 1861 and 1862, the Army achieved some positive results. It secured Washington, D.C., and the border states (Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri), and in cooperation with the U.S. Navy, it seized several key points along the Southern coast, including New Orleans, the largest city in the Confederacy. Under leaders such as Maj. Gens. Ulysses S. Grant and William T. Sherman, it occupied

George B. McClellan by Mathew Brady, 1861
(*National Archives*)

Battle of Shiloh by Thure de Thulstrup, c. 1888
(*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)

western Tennessee and most of the Mississippi River. In April 1862, the bloodiest battle in American history up to that time occurred at Shiloh, Tennessee, a U.S. victory that resulted in over 23,000 total casualties. It was a grim warning of the carnage to come.

In the most visible theater of the war, however, the Army of the Potomac struggled against the Confederate Army of Northern Virginia commanded by General Robert E. Lee. After victories in the Seven Days Battles outside Richmond, Virginia, and at Second Bull Run in the summer of 1862, Lee's army invaded Maryland in the hope of encouraging European intervention. The U.S. victory in the Battle of Antietam in September 1862 forced Lee to return to Virginia. It also enabled President Lincoln to issue the preliminary Emancipation Proclamation, a war measure that declared the slaves in the Confederate states free as of New Year's Day 1863, and also authorized the U.S. Army and Navy to recruit military-age African Americans into their ranks. More than 180,000 Blacks enlisted in the Army. Formed into segregated units commanded by White officers, these soldiers made a crucial contribution to the U.S. war effort.

The Army of the Potomac's defeats at Fredericksburg in December 1862 and Chancellorsville in May 1863 brought the U.S. effort in the East no closer to success than it had been at the start of the war. Under the command of Maj. Gen. George G. Meade, however, it defeated the Army of Northern Virginia at Gettysburg in July 1863. The victory repulsed Lee's last invasion of the North and inflicted losses that the South could no longer replace.


BRITISH POSSESSION
CIVIL WAR
1861–1862
Battle
Confederate States
0 100 200 300 400
Miles
MINNESOTA
WISCONSIN
MICHIGAN
VERMONT
MASSACHUSETTS
NEW YORK
CONNECTICUT
IOWA
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW JERSEY
INDIANA
OHIO
MARYLAND
Antietam
17 Sep 1862
DELAWARE
First Bull Run
21 Jul 1861
WASHINGTON, DC
Fredericksburg
13 Dec 1862
Second Bull Run
29–30 Aug 1862
ILLINOIS
RICHMOND
MISSOURI
KENTUCKY
VIRGINIA
Fair Oaks
31 May–1 Jun 1862
Seven Days Battles
25 Jun–1 Jul 1862
Fort Henry
6 Feb 1862
Wilson's Creek
10 Aug 1861
NORTH CAROLINA
Fort Donelson
15–16 Feb 1862
Shiloh
6–7 Apr 1862
TENNESSEE
ARKANSAS
SOUTH CAROLINA
Fort Sumter
12–13 Apr 1861
MISSISSIPPI
ALABAMA
GEORGIA
LOUISIANA
FLORIDA
Bahama Islands

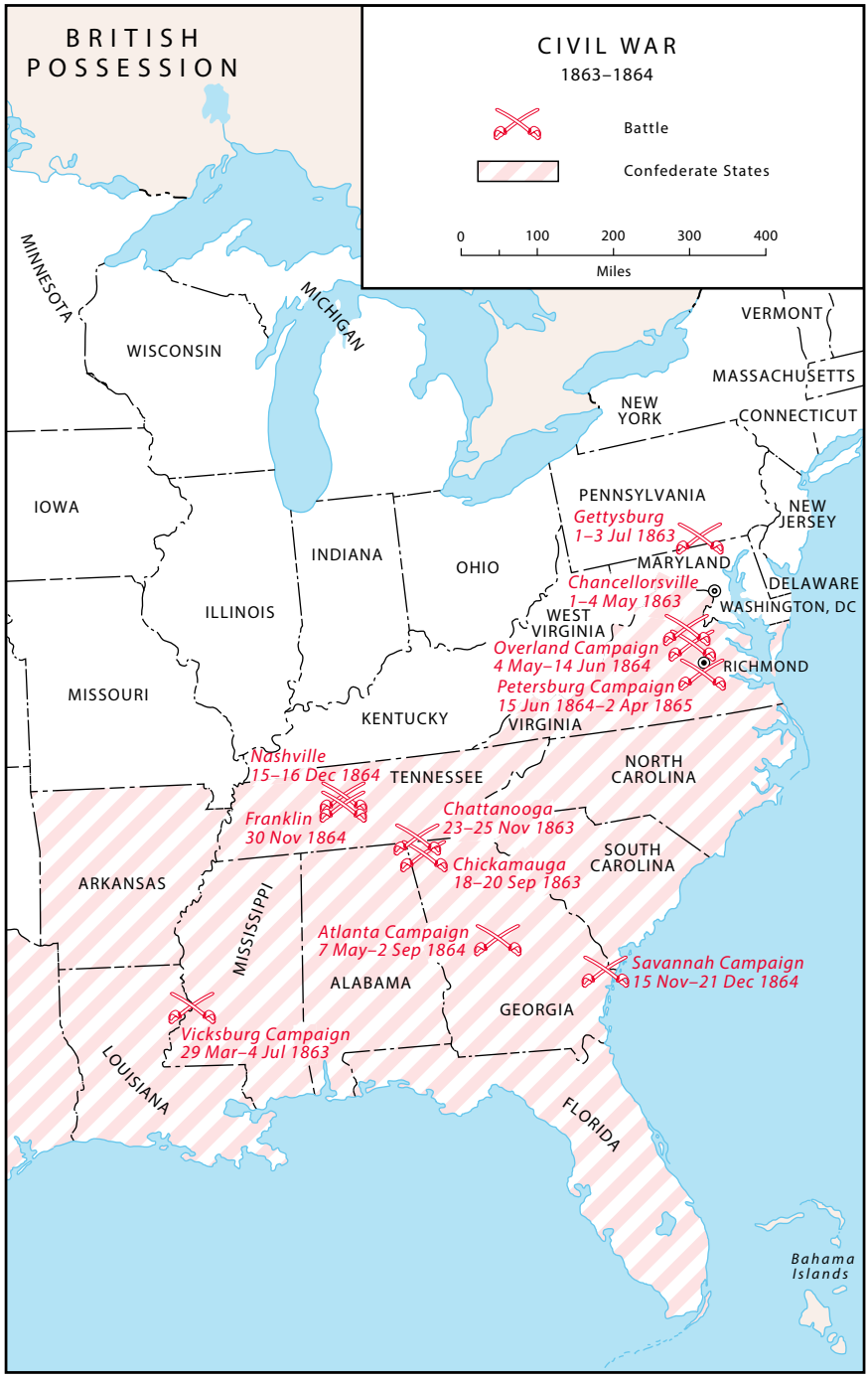
Map 2

Company E, 4th U.S. Colored Infantry at Fort Lincoln, by William Morris Smith, c. 1866 (*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)

On the Fourth of July, General Grant captured Vicksburg, Mississippi, after a lengthy siege and split the Confederacy in two, giving the United States control of the entire Mississippi River. The following November, the U.S. armies under Grant defeated the Confederate Army of Tennessee in the Battle of Chattanooga, opening the Southern heartland to invasion.

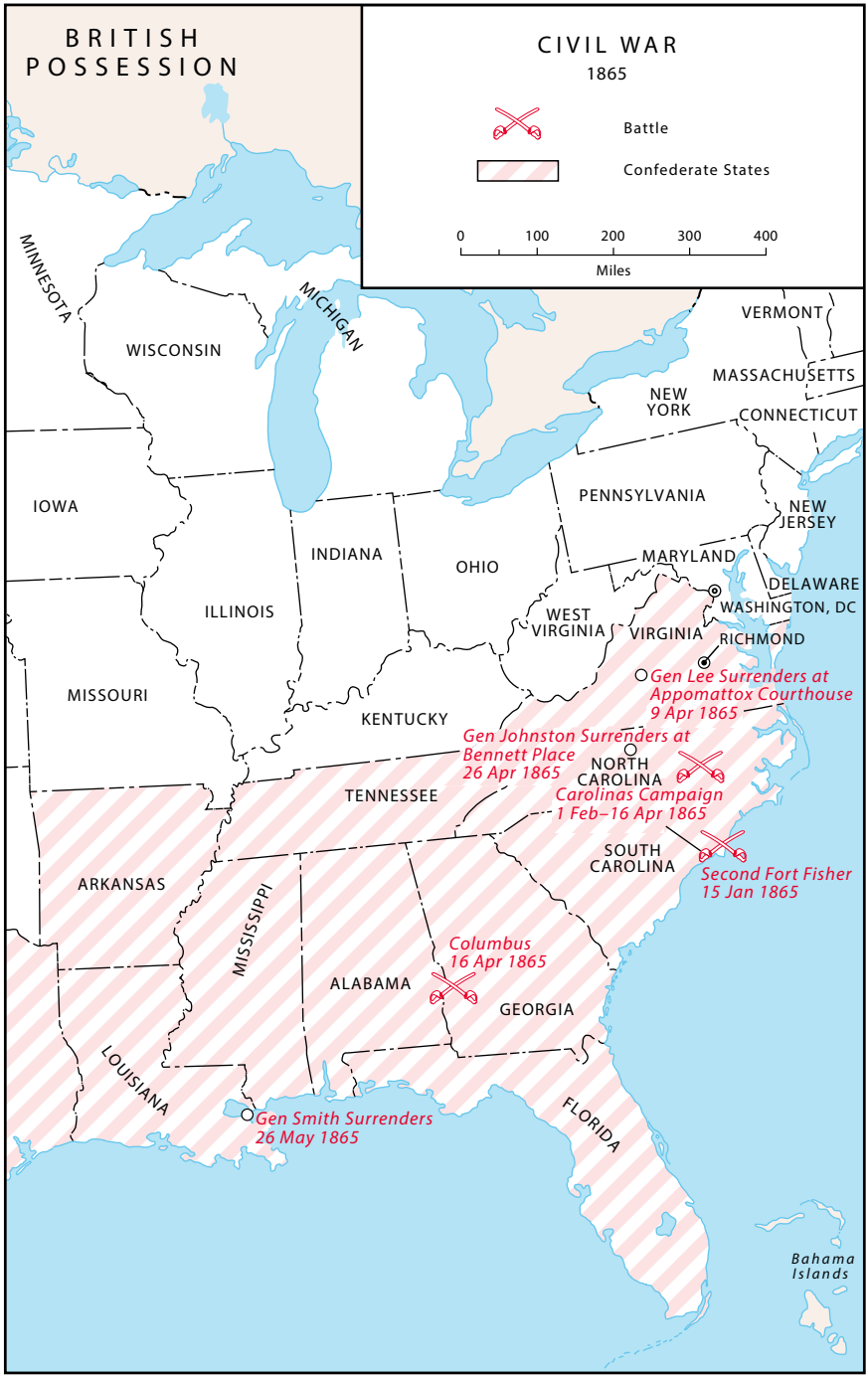
In March 1864, President Lincoln promoted Grant to lieutenant general and appointed him general in chief of the U.S. Army. Grant planned not only to annihilate the Confederate armies, but also to destroy the South's means of supporting them. Grant wore down Lee's army at the Wilderness, Spotsylvania Courthouse, and Petersburg during the campaigns of 1864 and 1865. His handpicked commander in the Deep South, General Sherman, captured Atlanta on 2 September 1864, ensuring Lincoln's reelection that fall. He then drove through the heart of Georgia and the Carolinas, destroying farms and factories, tearing up railroads, and otherwise obliterating the economic infrastructure of those regions. Cavalry raids and other U.S. operations such as the joint Army-Navy capture of Fort Fisher, which closed the vital blockade-running port of Wilmington, North Carolina, also advanced Grant's goal of destroying the Confederates' means of resistance. In April 1865, the Confederacy's two largest field armies surrendered at Appomattox Courthouse, Virginia, and at Bennett Place near Durham, North Carolina.

The Army's role in reunifying the nation did not end with Lee's surrender to Grant at Appomattox. To restore Southern allegiance to the United States, the Army had established wartime military governments in occupied areas, cracking down on Confederate guerrillas while providing food, schools, and improved sanitation to the destitute. This role continued after the collapse of the Confederacy, especially when the Republican Congress overrode President Andrew Johnson's lenient Reconstruction program in 1867 and


BRITISH POSSESSION
CIVIL WAR
1863–1864
Battle
Confederate States
0 100 200 300 400
Miles
MINNESOTA
WISCONSIN
MICHIGAN
VERMONT
MASSACHUSETTS
NEW YORK
CONNECTICUT
IOWA
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW JERSEY
Gettysburg
1–3 Jul 1863
INDIANA
OHIO
MARYLAND
Chancellorsville
1–4 May 1863
DELAWARE
WASHINGTON, DC
ILLINOIS
WEST VIRGINIA
Overland Campaign
4 May–14 Jun 1864
RICHMOND
Petersburg Campaign
15 Jun 1864–2 Apr 1865
MISSOURI
KENTUCKY
VIRGINIA
Nashville
15–16 Dec 1864
TENNESSEE
NORTH CAROLINA
Franklin
30 Nov 1864
Chattanooga
23–25 Nov 1863
SOUTH CAROLINA
ARKANSAS
Chickamauga
18–20 Sep 1863
MISSISSIPPI
Atlanta Campaign
7 May–2 Sep 1864
Savannah Campaign
15 Nov–21 Dec 1864
ALABAMA
GEORGIA
Vicksburg Campaign
29 Mar–4 Jul 1863
LOUISIANA
FLORIDA
Bahama Islands

Map 3

Battle of Spottsylvania [sic] by Thure de Thulstrup, 1887
(*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)


BRITISH POSSESSION
CIVIL WAR
1865
Battle
Confederate States
0
100
200
300
400
Miles
MINNESOTA
WISCONSIN
MICHIGAN
VERMONT
MASSACHUSETTS
NEW YORK
CONNECTICUT
IOWA
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW JERSEY
INDIANA
OHIO
MARYLAND
DELAWARE
ILLINOIS
WASHINGTON, DC
WEST VIRGINIA
VIRGINIA
RICHMOND
Gen Lee Surrenders at Appomattox Courthouse 9 Apr 1865
MISSOURI
KENTUCKY
Gen Johnston Surrenders at Bennett Place 26 Apr 1865
NORTH CAROLINA
TENNESSEE
Carolinas Campaign 1 Feb–16 Apr 1865
SOUTH CAROLINA
Second Fort Fisher 15 Jan 1865
ARKANSAS
MISSISSIPPI
Columbus 16 Apr 1865
ALABAMA
GEORGIA
LOUISIANA
Gen Smith Surrenders 26 May 1865
FLORIDA
Bahama Islands

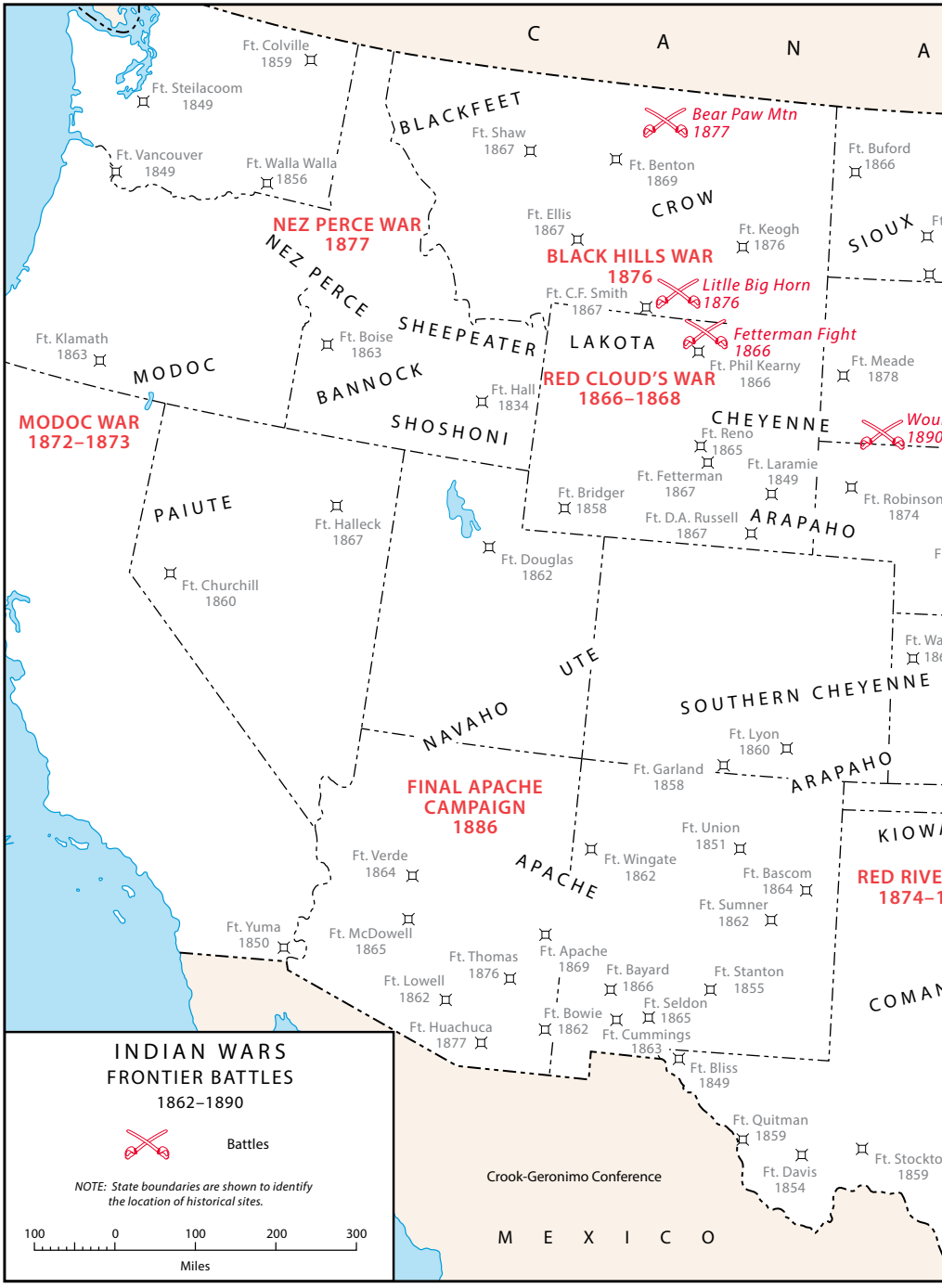
Map 4

The Freedmen's Bureau by A. R. Waud, from *Harper's Weekly*, 25 July 1868 (*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)

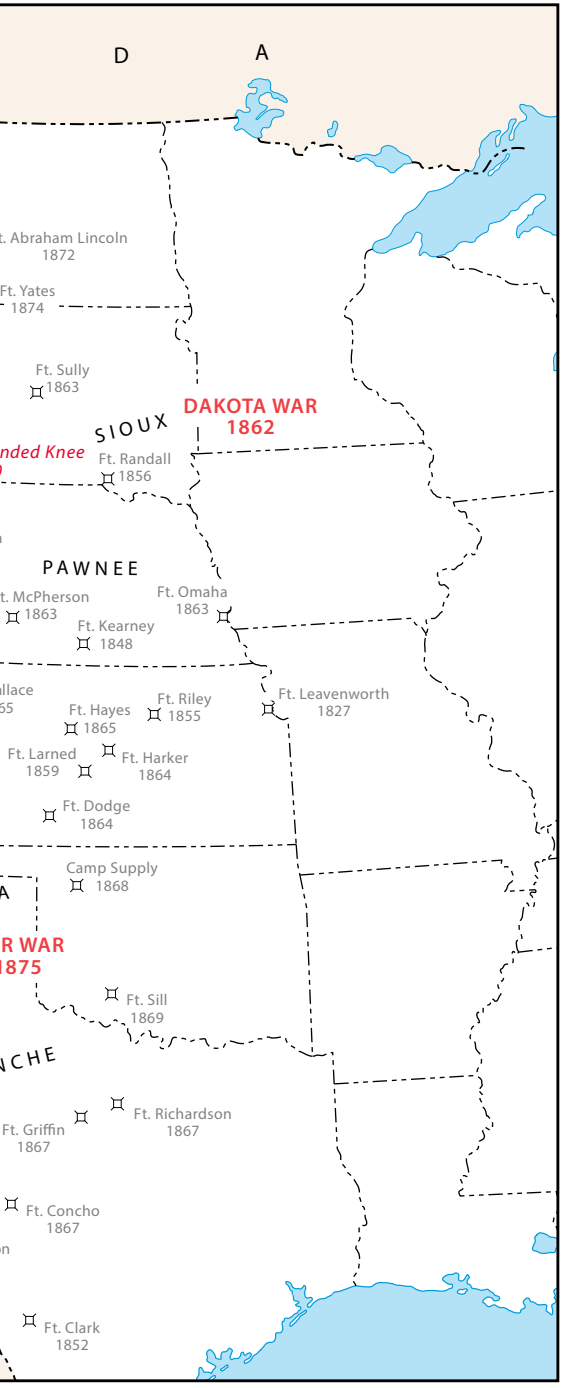
adopted its own tougher plan to restore the Southern states to the United States. The Army served as an occupation force and was the main means of enforcing Reconstruction efforts. Its most critical task was to protect newly freed African Americans and loyal Whites from white supremacist, paramilitary organizations such as the Ku Klux Klan. Acting through the Freedmen's Bureau, the Army provided relief for African Americans and indigent Whites, supplying twenty-one million rations, operating over fifty hospitals, arranging wage labor and establishing schools for freed Blacks.

The Army's task became increasingly difficult as support for Reconstruction waned and as occupation forces decreased in numbers. By the early 1870s, the Freedmen's Bureau had ceased operations as congressional funding for it dwindled to nothing. The Army's thankless but essential role in Reconstruction ended with the withdrawal of the last occupation troops from the South in 1877.

After the Civil War, the bulk of the Regular Army returned to its traditional role of frontier constabulary. Army officers negotiated treaties with the Lakota, Cheyenne, and other western tribes, and tried to maintain order between the Native Americans and the prospectors, hunters, ranchers, and farmers flooding into the West. When hostilities erupted, soldiers moved to force Native Americans onto reservations. In most cases, the tribes lacked the capacity or desire to challenge an Army unit of any size. In June 1876, however, at Little Bighorn in Montana Territory,


C A N A
Ft. Colville 1859
Ft. Steilacoom 1849
Ft. Vancouver 1849
Ft. Walla Walla 1856
BLACKFEET
Ft. Shaw 1867
Bear Paw Mtn 1877
Ft. Benton 1869
Ft. Buford 1866
CROW
Ft. Ellis 1867
Ft. Keogh 1876
SIOUX
NEZ PERCE WAR 1877
NEZ PERCE
BLACK HILLS WAR 1876
Litlle Big Horn 1876
Ft. C.F. Smith 1867
SHEEPEATER
LAKOTA
Fetterman Fight 1866
Ft. Phil Kearny 1866
Ft. Meade 1878
Ft. Klamath 1863
Ft. Boise 1863
MODOC
BANNOCK
Ft. Hall 1834
RED CLOUD'S WAR 1866–1868
MODOC WAR 1872–1873
SHOSHONI
CHEYENNE
Ft. Reno 1865
Ft. Laramie 1849
Ft. Fetterman 1867
Ft. Bridger 1858
Ft. Robinson 1874
Ft. D.A. Russell 1867
ARAPAHO
PAIUTE
Ft. Halleck 1867
Ft. Douglas 1862
Ft. Churchill 1860
UTE
SOUTHERN CHEYENNE
NAVAHO
Ft. Lyon 1860
Ft. Garland 1858
ARAPAHO
FINAL APACHE CAMPAIGN 1886
Ft. Union 1851
Ft. Verde 1864
Ft. Wingate 1862
APACHE
Ft. Bascom 1864
Ft. Sumner 1862
Ft. Yuma 1850
Ft. McDowell 1865
Ft. Thomas 1876
Ft. Apache 1869
Ft. Bayard 1866
Ft. Stanton 1855
Ft. Lowell 1862
Ft. Seldon 1865
Ft. Bowie 1862
Ft. Huachuca 1877
Ft. Cummings 1863
Ft. Bliss 1849
Ft. Quitman 1859
Ft. Davis 1854
Crook-Geronimo Conference
M E X I C O
INDIAN WARS
FRONTIER BATTLES
1862–1890
Battles
NOTE: State boundaries are shown to identify the location of historical sites.
100 0 100 200 300
Miles

Map 5



George A. Custer, taken as a brevet major general (*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)

the Lakota, Northern Cheyenne, and Arapaho tribes combined their fighting forces and annihilated Lt. Col. George A. Custer's 7th U.S. Cavalry. This victory proved short-lived, as the Army, aroused by "Custer's Last Stand," campaigned through the winter to force the Lakota onto their reservations. By 1890, the combination of unrelenting Army campaigns with the pressure of advancing western settlement effectively ended Native American resistance throughout the West. On 29 December, soldiers of the 7th Cavalry under Col. James W. Forsyth indiscriminately killed several hundred Lakota men, women, and children at Wounded Knee, South Dakota. The massacre brought the century-long conflict between the Army and Native Americans to a shameful conclusion.

TIMELINE

First, Second, and Third Seminole Wars (1817–1818, 1835–1842, 1855–1858)

Black Hawk War (1832)

Second Creek War (1836)

1842–1845
John C. Frémont Expeditions

Mexican-American War (1846–1848)

1846
8 May: Battle of Palo Alto
9 May: Battle of Resaca de la Palma
21–24 September: Battle of Monterrey

1847
22–23 February: Battle of Buena Vista
9–29 March: Siege of Veracruz
18 April: Battle of Cerro Gordo
19–20 August: Battles of Contreras and Churubusco
8 September: Battle of Molino del Rey
12–13 September: Battle of Chapultepec
14 September: Capture of Mexico City

1848
2 February: Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo signed

1853–1855
U.S. Army Transcontinental Railroad Surveys

Civil War (1861–1865)

1861
12–13 April: Battle of Fort Sumter
21 July: Battle of Bull Run
10 August: Battle of Wilson's Creek

1862
6 February: Battle of Fort Henry
15–16 February: Battle of Fort Donelson
6–7 April: Battle of Shiloh
31 May–1 June: Battle of Fair Oaks
25 June–1 July: Seven Days Battles
29–30 August: Second Battle of Bull Run
17 September: Battle of Antietam
13 December: Battle of Fredericksburg

1863
29 March–4 July 1863: Vicksburg Campaign
1–4 May: Battle of Chancellorsville
1–3 July: Battle of Gettysburg

18–20 September: Battle of Chickamauga
23–25 November: Battle of Chattanooga

1864

4 May–14 June: Overland Campaign (includes Battles of the Wilderness and Spotsylvania Courthouse)
7 May–2 September: Atlanta Campaign
15 June–2 April 1865: Petersburg Campaign (includes Battles of the Crater and Chaffin's Farm)
15 November–21 December: Savannah Campaign (Sherman's March to the Sea)
30 November: Battle of Franklin
15–16 December: Battle of Nashville

1865

15 January: Second Battle of Fort Fisher
1 February–16 April: Carolinas Campaign (includes Battle of Bentonville)
9 April: General Robert E. Lee surrenders to Lt. Gen. Ulysses S. Grant at Appomattox Courthouse
16 April: Battle of Columbus, Georgia
26 April: General Joseph E. Johnston surrenders to Maj. Gen. William T. Sherman at Bennett Place
26 May: General Edmund Kirby Smith surrenders the Trans-Mississippi Department to Maj. Gen. Edward R. S. Canby, the last major Confederate troop surrender of the war

Dakota War (1862)

Reconstruction in the South (1865–1877)

Red Cloud's War (1866–1868)

1866

21 December: Fetterman Fight

Modoc War (1872–1873)

Red River War (1874–1875)

Black Hills War (1876)

25–26 June: Battle of the Little Bighorn

Nez Perce War (1877)

30 September–5 October: Battle of Bear Paw

1878

Posse Comitatus Act

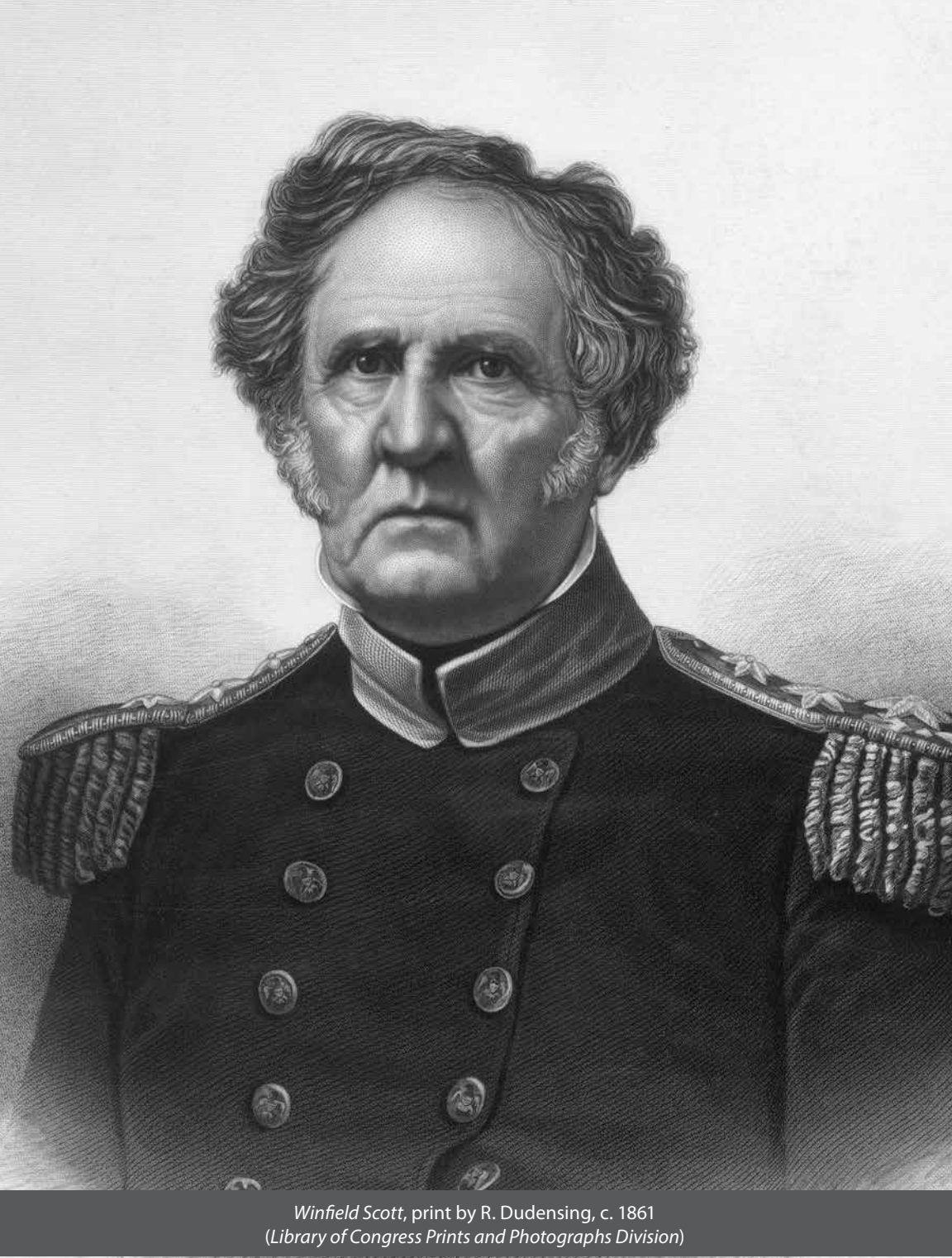
1881

7 May: Command and General Staff College established

Final Apache Campaign (1886)

Ghost Dance Campaign (1890)

29 December: Wounded Knee Massacre



Winfield Scott, print by R. Dudensing, c. 1861
(*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)

PEOPLE, ARTIFACTS, AND EVENTS

Known as the "Grand Old Man of the Army," **Maj. Gen. Winfield Scott** served as a general officer from the War of 1812 to the Civil War, a forty-seven-year stretch that remains unequaled in the U.S. Army. As a twenty-seven-year-old brigadier general, Scott received the nickname "Old Fuss and Feathers" for his insistence on military discipline and appearance. Yet his efforts helped to transform his infantry brigade into an elite fighting force that defeated British regulars in the Battle of Chippewa. After the War of 1812, he helped upgrade and standardize Army drill regulations.

In the 1830s, Scott faced Native American tribes that refused to relocate under government coercion. He led an indecisive campaign in the Second Seminole War and then defeated the Muscogee in the Creek War of 1836. In 1838, he oversaw the Cherokee Removal, known as the "Trail of Tears." Despite widespread criticism for doing so, he approved Chief John Ross's plan that enabled the Cherokee to lead their own westward movement. On 5 July 1841, Scott became Commanding General of the U.S. Army, and stressed the importance of professional schooling for the officer corps. In the Mexican-American War, he led the campaign that culminated in the capture of Mexico City and the defeat of the Mexican army. Upon hearing the news, the famed British general Arthur Wellesley, 1st Duke of Wellington—who in 1815 had triumphed over the forces of Napoleon Bonaparte at the Battle of Waterloo—praised Scott as "the greatest living soldier." At the start of the Civil War, Scott was seventy-four and in poor health, so he retired in November 1861 after fifty-three years of service. He lived to see the United States win the war, dying at West Point on 29 May 1866.

General Ulysses S. Grant at his headquarters in Cold Harbor, Virginia, c. June 1864. Grant was a lieutenant general when E. G. Fowx took this photo. (*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)

At the outbreak of the Civil War, **Lt. Gen. Ulysses S. Grant** was working as a clerk in the family store at Galena, Illinois. A graduate of West Point and a decorated veteran of the Mexican-American War, Grant had resigned from the Army in 1854 amid allegations of chronic drunkenness. He jumped at the chance to volunteer again in the U.S. Army, and in August 1861, received a commission as brigadier general. Two victories in February 1862 at Forts Henry and Donelson in western Tennessee earned him the nickname "Unconditional Surrender" Grant and made him a public figure. A few months later, a Confederate surprise attack at Shiloh caught Grant's army off-balance and resulted in heavy casualties. Although the arrival of U.S. reinforcements enabled Grant to defeat the Southerners, President Abraham Lincoln received several demands for his removal from command. Lincoln refused, saying, "I can't spare this man. He fights."

Grant's Vicksburg Campaign, which stretched for much of 1863, is a tribute to his tenacity and resourcefulness. After two assaults failed to break though Vicksburg's strong defenses, Grant settled in for a lengthy siege, which ended with the Confederates' surrender on the Fourth of July. Later in 1863, Grant routed the Confederates at Chattanooga, solidifying his reputation as the North's premier field commander. In March 1864, President Lincoln promoted Grant to lieutenant general and appointed him general in chief of the U.S. Army. Heading east, Grant made his headquarters with the Army of the Potomac, determined to crush Robert E. Lee's Army of Northern Virginia. In some of the most savage fighting of the war, Grant steadily hammered away at Lee's army in the spring and summer of 1864, leading to the fall of Richmond and Lee's surrender at Appomattox Courthouse in April 1865. Grant went on to serve two terms as the eighteenth president of the United States, overseeing Reconstruction and the Army's efforts to eliminate the Ku Klux Klan.

Alonzo H. Cushing, taken c. May 1861, when he was a West Point cadet (*Wisconsin Historical Society*)

Just twenty-two years old in the summer of 1863, **1st Lt. Alonzo H. Cushing** was a graduate of West Point and the veteran of a half-dozen major battles. At Gettysburg, he commanded the 126 men and 6 guns of Battery A, 4th U.S. Artillery. On 3 July 1863, Cushing's battery occupied a position in the center of the U.S. line known as the Angle. At about 1300, the Confederates opened a 150-gun artillery barrage on the U.S. Army. A veteran of Cushing's battery recalled, "Every few seconds a shot or shell would strike in among our guns. . . . Men and horses were being torn to pieces on all sides." During the cannonade, Cushing sustained severe wounds in his right shoulder and abdomen. Extreme blood loss left him too weak to issue orders to his gun crews, so he called on his first sergeant, Frederick W. Fuger, to speak for him. When Fuger urged him to go to the rear, Cushing refused, saying that he would "fight it out or die in the attempt." The Confederate barrage left Cushing with only two functioning cannons; worse yet, dead and wounded artillery soldiers covered the ground all around him. Anticipating an enemy assault, Cushing ordered his crews to haul their remaining guns to a low stone wall a short distance to the front.

After the Southern cannons fell silent, around 13,000 Confederate foot soldiers received the order to fall in and dress ranks. At 1500, they began the three-quarter-mile advance toward the U.S. line on Cemetery Ridge. The assault known as Pickett's Charge had begun. As the Confederate line approached to within range, Cushing had Sergeant Fuger order his two guns to open fire with solid shot, spherical case, and finally canister. The cannon balls and shrapnel tore huge gaps in the Confederate ranks. As the attackers rushed toward the stone wall, a bullet struck Cushing in the face, killing him. More than 151 years later, President Barack H. Obama posthumously presented Cushing with the Medal of Honor for his heroism, which contributed mightily to the repulse of Pickett's Charge.

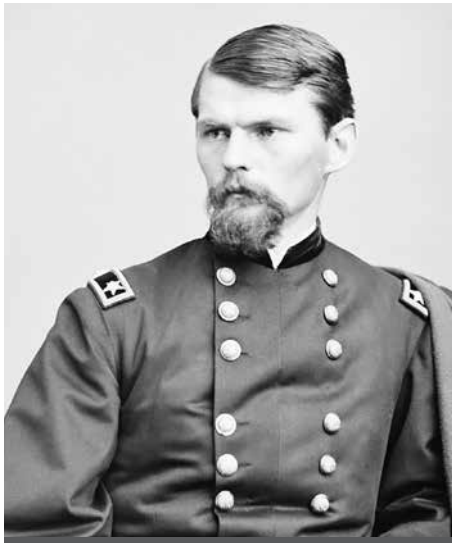
Nelson A. Miles, taken as a brevet major general, c. 1861–1870
(*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)

In the course of a forty-two-year career in the U.S. Army, **Lt. Gen. Nelson A. Miles** rose from private to Commanding General. During the Civil War, he was wounded while leading troops at Fair Oaks. After a quick recovery, he commanded the 61st New York Infantry at Antietam, Fredericksburg, and Chancellorsville, where he again was wounded, this time so severely that Army surgeons did not expect him to survive. Miles eventually recovered from his injuries but was disappointed at missing the Battle of Gettysburg. Returning to the Army, he served at the Wilderness and Spotsylvania Courthouse and received a promotion to brigadier general. Miles went on to command a brigade and then a division in the Petersburg and Appomattox Campaigns. After the war, he oversaw the incarceration of the former Confederate president, Jefferson F. Davis, at Fort Monroe, Virginia. Promoted to colonel in the Regular Army in July 1866, he assumed command of the 40th U.S. Infantry, a regiment of African American troops, and directed the Freedmen's Bureau in North Carolina.

Miles then headed west and became one of the most successful commanders on the post–Civil War frontier. In 1874–1875, he defeated Southern Plains Indian tribes in the Red River War. In 1876, after Custer's defeat at the Little Bighorn, Miles forced the Lakota and other Northern Plains tribes onto reservations or across the Canadian border. In the fall of 1877, he defeated the Nez Perce band led by Chief Joseph at the Battle of Bear Paw, Montana Territory. In 1880, Miles rose to brigadier general in the Regular Army. Six years later, he accepted the surrender of Geronimo's Apache force. In December 1890, as a major general, Miles commanded the force that was responsible for killing or wounding roughly 200 Lakota at Wounded Knee, South Dakota. From his headquarters at Fort Sheridan, Illinois, Miles relieved the commander on the scene, Col. James W. Forsyth, for what he considered "a horrible massacre of women and children."

Although the Posse Comitatus Act of 1878 put severe limitations on the use of federal troops in law enforcement, President Grover Cleveland directed that Miles help put down the Pullman Strike in 1894. The following year, he became commanding general of the U.S. Army. During the Spanish-American War, Miles led the invasion of Puerto Rico, serving as the first head of the military government on that island. Promoted to lieutenant general in 1900, Miles left the Army in 1903, having reached the mandatory retirement age of sixty-four. When the United States entered World War I, the seventy-seven-year-old Miles volunteered his services, but President Woodrow Wilson politely declined his offer.

A brilliant and driven young West Pointer, **Brig. Gen. Emory Upton** was that rare Civil War officer who excelled whether leading artillery, infantry, or cavalry. He was also a tactical innovator who sought to achieve decisive results at minimal cost. At Spotsylvania Courthouse, he attempted an assault in depth with a single infantry brigade using fixed bayonets only. The shock of the attack caused a breakthrough, but Upton could not exploit it because reinforcements for his troops failed to arrive as planned. Yet Upton's partial success so impressed General Grant that he attempted a similar assault a few days later with an entire corps. At Columbus, Georgia, during the closing days of the war, Upton led his cavalry division on a night assault—a feat seldom attempted during the Civil War—that overwhelmed the Confederate defenders.



Emory Upton, taken as a brevet major general, c. 1860 and 1865 (*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)

After the war, Upton became one of the Army's most visionary reformers. He served on a board that developed a new system of infantry tactics, and then was commandant of cadets at West Point for five years, during which he taught artillery, cavalry, and infantry tactics. At the behest of the Commanding General, William T. Sherman, Upton went on a global tour to study foreign armed forces, and the result was *The Armies of Europe and Asia*, in which he warned that European armies had achieved a level of professionalism far in advance of the U.S. Army. Among his numerous recommendations were the expansible army concept, a general staff based on the Prussian model, and the creation of advanced military schools. Upton's most controversial work, *The Military Policy of the Unites States from 1775*, was unfinished at the time of his death in 1881. The Army ultimately would adopt most of his proposed reforms, paving the way for the highly professional organization that emerged in the early twentieth century.

Christian A. Fleetwood
(*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)

Born free in Baltimore, Maryland, **Sgt. Maj. Christian A. Fleetwood** received early education from his father's employer, a wealthy sugar merchant. He then graduated from the Ashmun Institute in Pennsylvania in 1860, and became a cofounder of one of the first newspapers with African American ownership in the South. In August 1863, Fleetwood enlisted in the 4th U.S. Colored Infantry; because of his education and experience, he became the regiment's sergeant major, then the highest rank a black soldier could attain. The unit served in the Petersburg Campaign, including the disastrous Battle of the Crater on 30 July 1864.

On 29 September, Fleetwood and the 4th U.S. Colored Infantry fought in the Battle of Chaffin's Farm. During a charge on Confederate fortifications, the color-bearers carrying the regimental and the national flags fell wounded. Fleetwood and another soldier seized the colors and led the attack. Unfortunately, the defenders held firm, and the assault proved futile. Nevertheless, Fleetwood and thirteen other African American soldiers received the Medal of Honor for their heroic actions at Chaffin's Farm. Transferred to North Carolina for the operations to capture Fort Fisher, Fleetwood and the 4th Regiment completed their wartime service under General Sherman's command.

Dr. Mary E. Walker wearing her Medal of Honor
(*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Divison*)

The only woman to receive the Medal of Honor thus far, **Dr. Mary E. Walker** was also one of the first licensed female physicians in the United States. At the outbreak of the Civil War, Walker volunteered as a surgeon, but the Army rejected her because of her gender, even though she had years of experience as a private-practice physician. Determined to contribute in any way she could, Walker initially served as a nurse at the Battle of Bull Run, followed by work as an unpaid volunteer surgeon at the Battle of Fredericksburg and the Battle of Chickamauga in north Georgia. In September 1863, the Army of the Cumberland hired Walker as a contract surgeon. In addition to her service with the Army, she treated civilian patients, sometimes crossing into enemy territory to do so. On 10 April 1864, Confederate soldiers arrested her during one such mission of mercy, believing that she was a spy. She spent four months in the notorious Confederate prison, Castle Thunder in Richmond, Virginia, before her exchange in August 1864.

After the war, President Andrew Johnson presented Walker with the Medal of Honor in recognition of her service. She proudly wore the medal for the rest of her life, even though the Army later stripped it from her because of a technicality. In 1977, however, the Army posthumously restored Walker's medal.

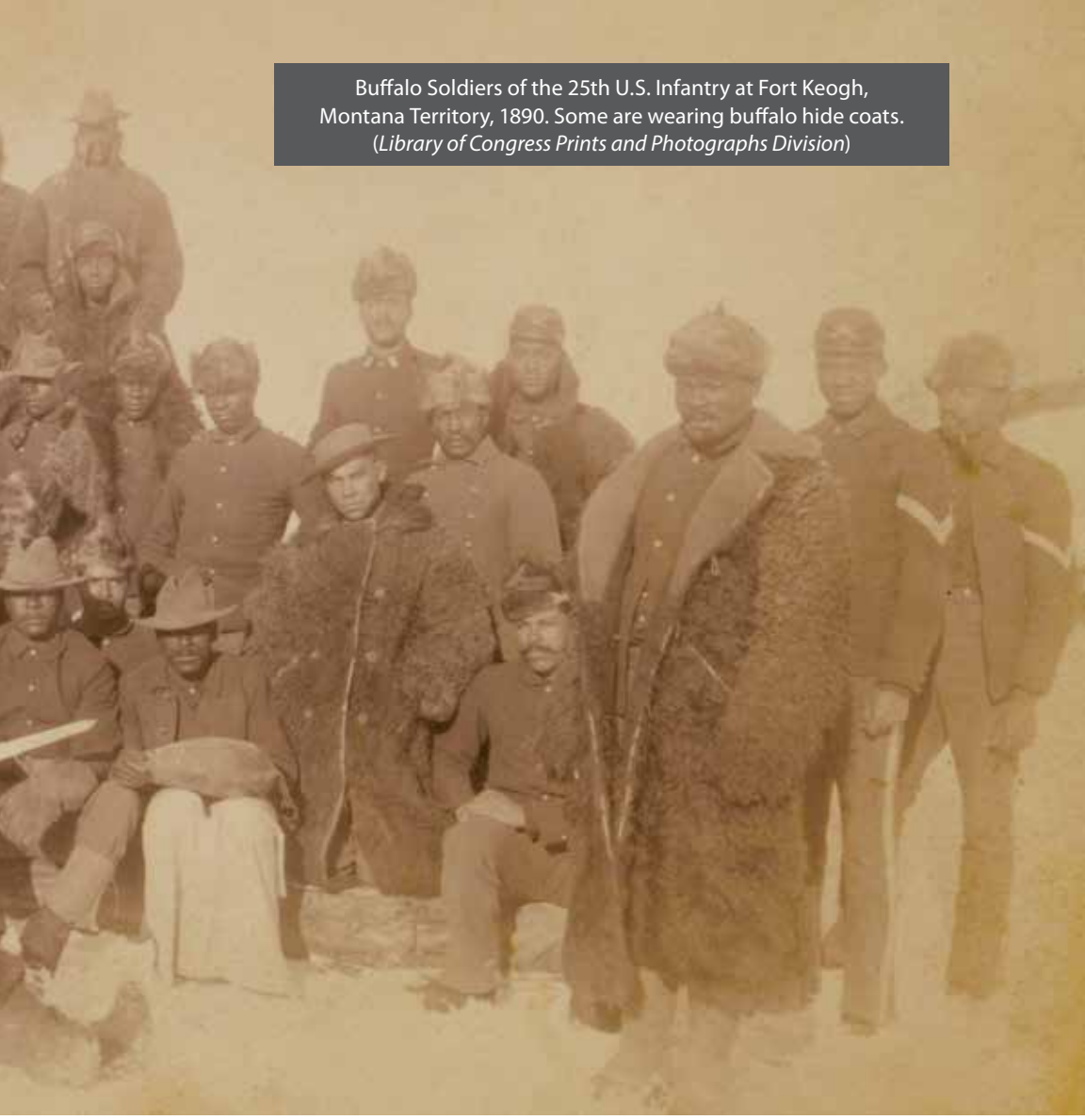
Anton Mazzanovich
(*National Museum of the U.S. Army*)

A native of Lesina in the Austrian Empire (now Hvar, Croatia), **Pvt. Anton Mazzanovich** enlisted in the 21st U.S. Infantry as a musician in January 1870. Mazzanovich said that he was eleven years old, but he was actually nine—probably the youngest soldier in the Regular Army's ranks. Three years later, he received a discharge at his father's request to help support his family. He returned to the Army in 1881 and served with the 6th U.S. Cavalry in present-day Arizona. Honorably discharged in July 1882, he became a civilian scout during the Army's final campaign against Geronimo's Apache. After his military service, Mazzanovich worked as a saloonkeeper, actor, and author. His memoir, *Trailing Geronimo*, is his best known publication.

Y. B. Rowdy (Find a Grave)

A Yavapai Indian, **Sgt. Yuma William "Bill" Rowdy** was born and raised in present-day Arizona and served in Company A of the U.S. Army's Indian Scouts. On 7 March 1890, Sergeant Rowdy fought in an action against renegade Apaches during the Cherry Creek Campaign—four years after the surrender of Geronimo and his band. In recognition of his bravery, Rowdy received the Medal of Honor two months later. He died on 29 March 1893 and was buried in the Old Post Cemetery at Fort Grant in Arizona Territory. In 1907, the Army moved his remains to the Santa Fe National Cemetery in modern New Mexico, where he lies beside eight other Medal of Honor recipients.

"Buffalo Soldiers" is the nickname for African American troops who served in four segregated Regular Army regiments: the 9th and 10th U.S. Cavalry, and the 24th and 25th U.S. Infantry. Formed in the post–Civil War era, they fought in most of the western frontier campaigns, with eighteen soldiers receiving the Medal of Honor. Their duties also included roadbuilding, escorting the U.S. mail, and park ranger service. The first nonwhite officer to command Buffalo Soldiers was 2d Lt. Henry O. Flipper, who joined the 10th Cavalry in 1877. Flipper was the first African American to graduate from West Point.



Buffalo Soldiers of the 25th U.S. Infantry at Fort Keogh, Montana Territory, 1890. Some are wearing buffalo hide coats. (*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)

The term Buffalo Soldiers originated with Native Americans, some of whom compared the Black soldiers' dark, curly hair to a buffalo's mane. Other Native Americans noted the buffalo hide coats they wore in cold weather, and still others paid tribute to their bison-like toughness in battle. The nickname became a generic term for all black soldiers. The Army now uses it to denote units that trace their lineage back to these African American regiments.

Civil War Medal of Honor
(*National Museum of the U.S. Army*)

On 15 February 1862, Senator Henry Wilson introduced a resolution for a **Medal of Honor for the Army**. Congress approved the resolution and the president signed it into law on 12 July 1862. The measure provided for a Medal of Honor to noncommissioned officers and privates who distinguished themselves "by their gallantry in action and other soldier-like qualities during the present insurrection." On 3 March 1863, Congress made the Medal of Honor a permanent decoration and extended eligibility to commissioned officers. Three weeks later, Secretary of War Edwin M. Stanton presented the Medal of Honor—initially a five-point bronze star coated in copper—to six soldiers who had participated in the Andrews Raid in April 1862. The raid had involved the hijacking of *The General*, a Confederate locomotive, in an effort to destroy bridges and railroad tracks in north Georgia. The first recipient was Pvt. Jacob W. Parrott, an Ohio soldier whom the Confederates had captured and beaten. Afterward, the recipients met President Lincoln at the White House, a ceremony that soon became a tradition. More than 2,400 soldiers have received the Medal of Honor since then.

U.S. Army forage cap with red Maltese cross badge, signifying 1st Division, V Corps (*Heritage Auction Galleries*)

The idea for the **corps badge** reportedly originated in the summer of 1862 with Maj. Gen. Philip Kearny, who ordered the men in his division to wear a two-inch-square piece of red cloth on their hats to maintain unit cohesion while in battle. When Maj. Gen. Joseph Hooker assumed command of the Army of the Potomac in January 1863, he adopted Kearny's idea and expanded it army-wide to make any soldier's unit affiliation easily identifiable. Hooker gave the task of devising distinctive shapes—such as a diamond or a star—for each corps badge to his chief of staff, Maj. Gen. Daniel A. Butterfield. Butterfield stipulated that each division in a corps should have a different-colored badge: red for the first division, white for the second division, and blue for the third division. Corps with more than three divisions used other colors, such as green or yellow, for the additional units. Hooker directed that soldiers fasten their badges "upon the center of the top of the cap," but other locations included the front of their cap or hat or over their left breast. In addition, corps and division flags bore the appropriate badge and color.

With a few exceptions, the other U.S. armies adopted this badge and flag scheme. The forerunners of today's shoulder patches, corps badges became a source of unit pride, and sometimes led to intense rivalry. For example, "The Battle of Acorn Run" is a nickname for the Battle of Bentonville, North Carolina, coined by soldiers of the XX Corps. They were alluding to the rout of a portion of the XIV Corps, whose badge was the acorn.

The **minié ball** is a hollow-based, cylindrical bullet developed in 1849 by a French Army officer, Claude-Étienne Minié (pronounced min-YAY), for muzzle-loading rifle-muskets such as the American Springfield Model 1861 and the British Pattern 1853 Enfield, both of which saw extensive use on Civil War battlefields. The barrels of the two weapons contain spiral grooves, or rifling, which impart a stabilizing spin to the similarly grooved minié ball, increasing its range and accuracy. The soft lead round also expands as the gunpowder heats up, creating a snug bullet-to-bore seal that maximizes muzzle velocity. The result is a weapon capable of inflicting far greater damage to a human body than the smoothbore musket could manage. When a minié ball struck bone, the bone usually shattered, necessitating amputation. Minié ball–induced amputations accounted for three out of four operations in Civil War hospitals. Worse yet, exit wounds were massive, and the resulting damage to organ tissue and major blood vessels was often fatal.

Minié balls
(*Courtesy of Mike Cumpston*)

Springfield Model 1861 rifle-musket
(*Springfield Armory National Historic Site*)

In addition to its other advantages, the minié ball was easier to load than the ball for the old long rifle. It was smaller than the diameter of the grooves and readily slid down the barrel, whereas the old rifle ball had to be encased in a cloth patch laced with wax or fat and then rammed down the barrel, which took time. The United States produced more than two billion "minnie balls," as the soldiers called them, and it is estimated that they caused 100,000 deaths in the Civil War.

A pair of Model 1857 12-pound Napoleon field guns
(*Courtesy of Michael McMurray*)

The **Model 1857 12-Pound Napoleon Field Gun**—more popularly known as the 12-pounder Napoleon—was the most-used smoothbore cannon of the Civil War. Typical of the time, it was a muzzle-loading weapon, boasting a 1,220-pound bronze barrel based on a gun-howitzer developed by the French Army in 1853. It bore the name of the French Emperor, Napoleon III, nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte. Both safe and reliable, the 12-pound Napoleon had a maximum range of 1,700 yards and could fire solid shot, shell, spherical case, and canister. It was especially lethal when firing canister at short range. U.S. Brig. Gen. Alpheus S. Williams described the effect of several Napoleons firing canister on a large troop formation: "Each canister contains several [dozen] balls. They fell in the very front of the line and all along it apparently, stirring up a dust like a thick cloud. When the dust blew away, no regiment and not a living man was to be seen."

Gatling gun
(*Springfield Armory National Historic Site*)

The brainchild of inventor Richard J. Gatling, the **Gatling gun** consisted of six barrels arranged around a center rod. Two people operated this machine gun mounted on a wheeled carriage. One person turned a hand crank, causing the barrels to rotate and fire, while a second fed ammunition cartridges into a hopper. As each barrel reached its lowest point, it fired a round and then reloaded on completing its revolution. Gatling first patented his gun in 1862 but continued to improve it. Nevertheless, a demonstration of the weapon left the Chief of Ordnance, Brig. Gen. James W. Ripley, less than impressed. He reportedly muttered, "You can kill a man just as dead with a . . . smooth-bore."

Undaunted, Gatling persuaded Maj. Gen. Benjamin F. Butler to buy a few of his guns for a thousand dollars each, and they saw limited action in the siege of Petersburg. In 1865, Gatling obtained a patent for a weapon that could fire 350 rounds per minute. A demonstration of the improved Gatling gun at Fort Monroe, Virginia, convinced the new Chief of Ordnance—the War Department had reassigned Ripley—to order 100 guns. The Army officially adopted the Gatling gun on 24 August 1866. Although too late for the Civil War, it became a fixture on the western frontier. Much is made of Colonel Custer's refusal to take along three Gatling guns on his ill-fated Little Bighorn expedition because he believed they would slow his progress. General Miles, however, found Gatling guns useful on campaign and had one on hand when he defeated Chief Joseph and the Nez Perce in the Battle of Bear Paw.

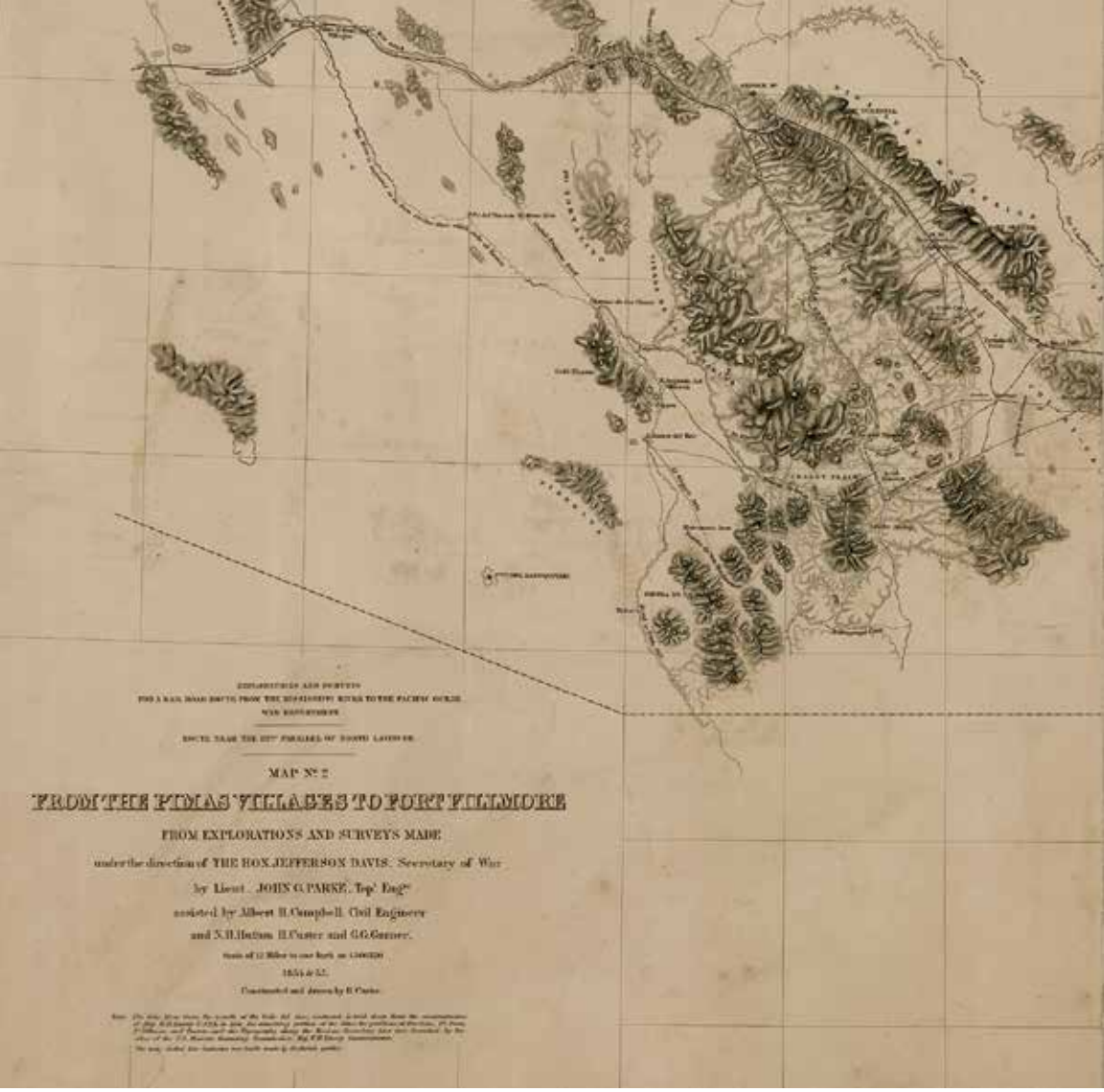
Capt. James W. Forsyth, a provost marshal in the Army of the Potomac, sits on a crate of hardtack at the army's supply base on Aquia Landing, Virginia. The crate indicates that the manufacturer is the Union Mechanical Baking Company of New York City. (*Library of Congress*)
Inset: Civil War-era hardtack (*T. T. Wentworth Jr. Florida State Museum*)

Although northern manufacturers supplied U.S. troops with canned goods such as condensed milk and seafood, their availability was limited, restricting the quality and variety of **Civil War rations**. Yet the U.S. Army's Commissary General of Subsistence proved adept at keeping the soldiers in blue well fed, something the Confederate Commissary Department could rarely manage.

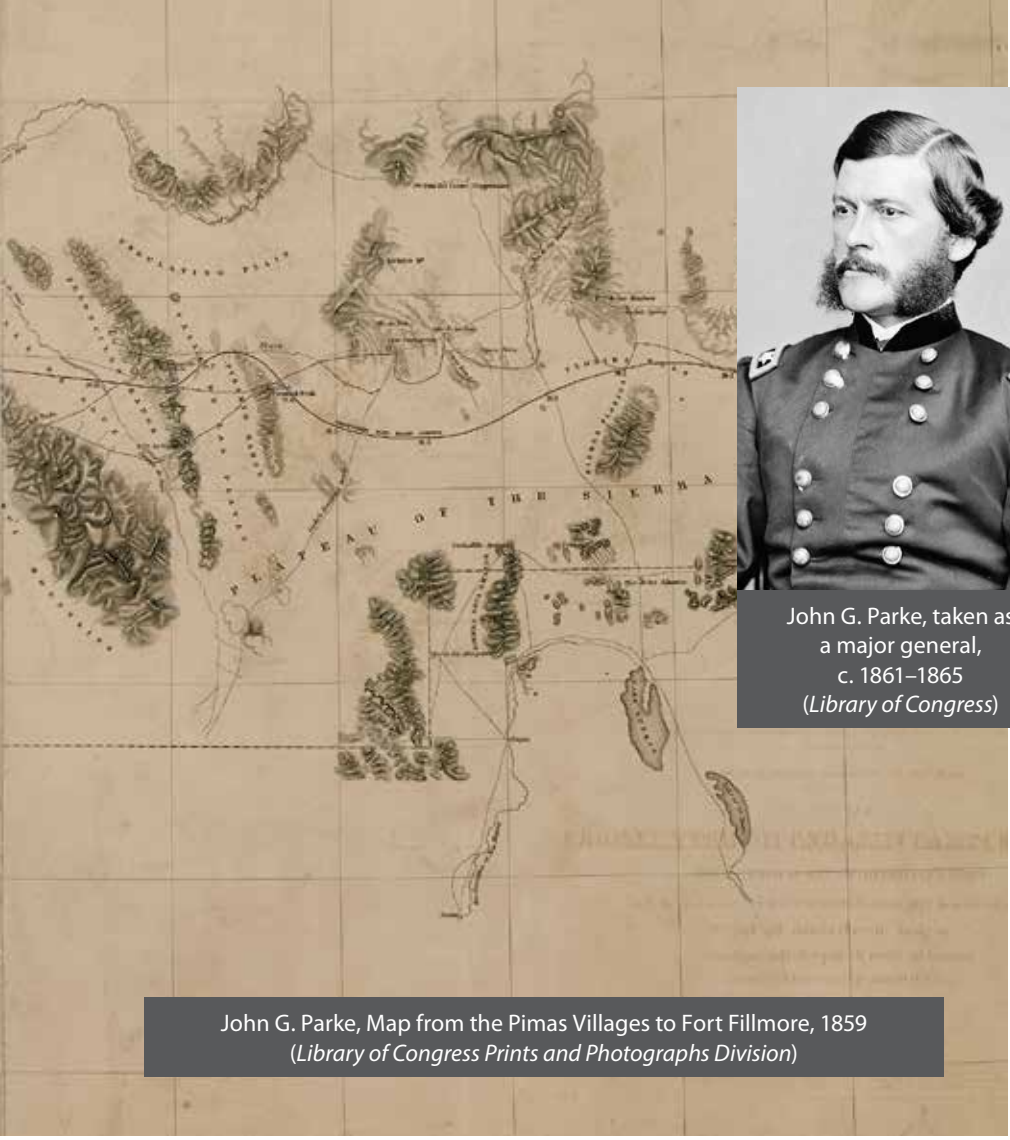
The staple of the soldier's daily ration was hardtack, a plain biscuit or cracker made of flour, water, and sometimes salt. Its chief virtue was durability—samples of Civil War–vintage hardtack are still on display in museums. U.S. soldiers also received coffee, sugar, rice, hominy, dried vegetables, molasses, and bacon or salt beef. Dissatisfied with such unappetizing fare, soldiers considered soft bread and fresh meat rare delicacies. Whenever possible, they supplemented their Army rations by purchasing these and other items from the sutler—a nineteenth-century forerunner of the modern post exchange—or by foraging on the local populace. As the war progressed, U.S. forces operating deep in Confederate territory relied increasingly on foraging and ultimately made it official practice.

Spencer repeating carbine (*National Museum of the U.S. Army*)

Invented in 1860 by Christopher Spencer, the **Spencer repeating rifle** was a lever-action weapon capable of firing seven rounds before reloading. Soldiers appreciated the Spencer's increased firepower—fourteen to twenty rounds per minute—and ease of use when compared with the single-shot, muzzle-loading rifle-musket, which could be loaded and fired just two or three times a minute. Yet the Army Ordnance Department initially disapproved of repeating rifles because of concerns that users would waste ammunition. This meant that a soldier who wanted a Spencer rifle had to pay about forty dollars out of pocket—roughly three months' pay for a private. Entire units such as Col. John T. Wilder's Lightning Brigade of mounted infantry wielded Spencer rifles, and Brig. Gen. James H. Wilson's cavalry corps opted for Spencer carbines because of their smaller size. In the end, about 200,000 soldiers and civilians believed Spencer repeating firearms were worth the cost.



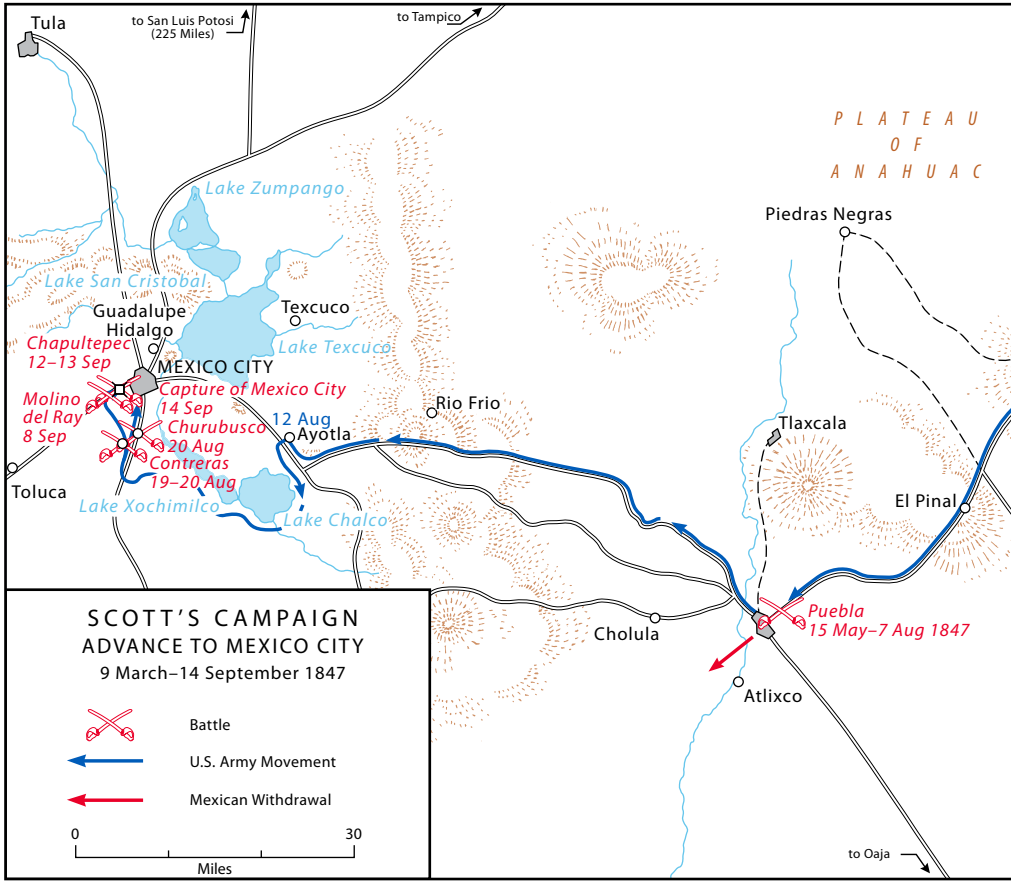
Lt. John G. Parke was well qualified to map a route for the **Transcontinental Railroad**. He graduated second in the class of 1849 at West Point and received an appointment to the elite Army Corps of Topographical Engineers. In 1851, he took part in a survey of present-day New Mexico and Arizona. In 1854, he surveyed a possible route for the Transcontinental Railroad along the 32nd parallel, the southernmost of the five east-west routes under exploration. The next year, he made a second survey of the 32nd parallel route and managed to shave thirty miles off the first survey and bypass some hilly country. As a result, the 32nd parallel route proved to be the least expensive of the five



John G. Parke, Map from the Pimas Villages to Fort Fillmore, 1859
(*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)

John G. Parke, taken as a major general, c. 1861–1865
(*Library of Congress*)

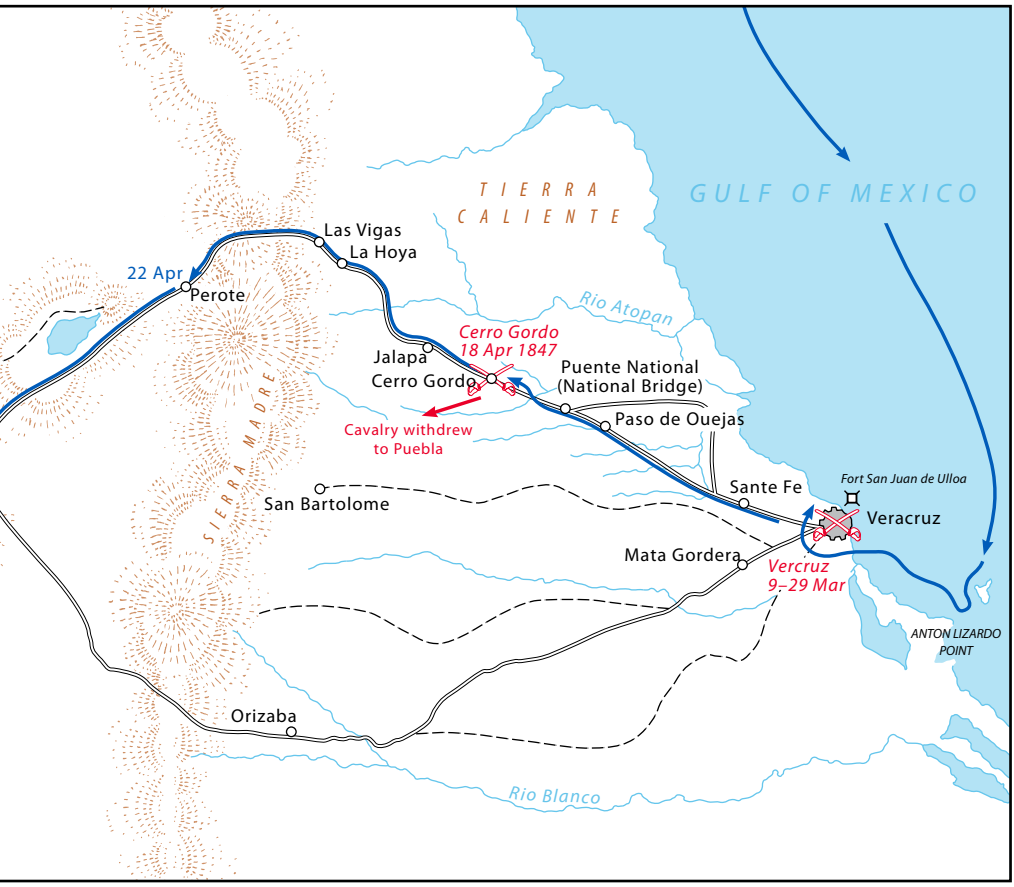
transcontinental routes surveyed. However, the Civil War intervened before work could start on what became the Southern Pacific Railroad. Parke headed east and served in the Army of the Potomac, rising to major general commanding the IX Corps. In 1865, a group of western business leaders established the Southern Pacific Railroad, and sixteen years later, the line formed part of the nation's second transcontinental railroad. Parke, meanwhile, served as commandant of cadets at West Point from 1887 until his retirement in 1889.



Map 6

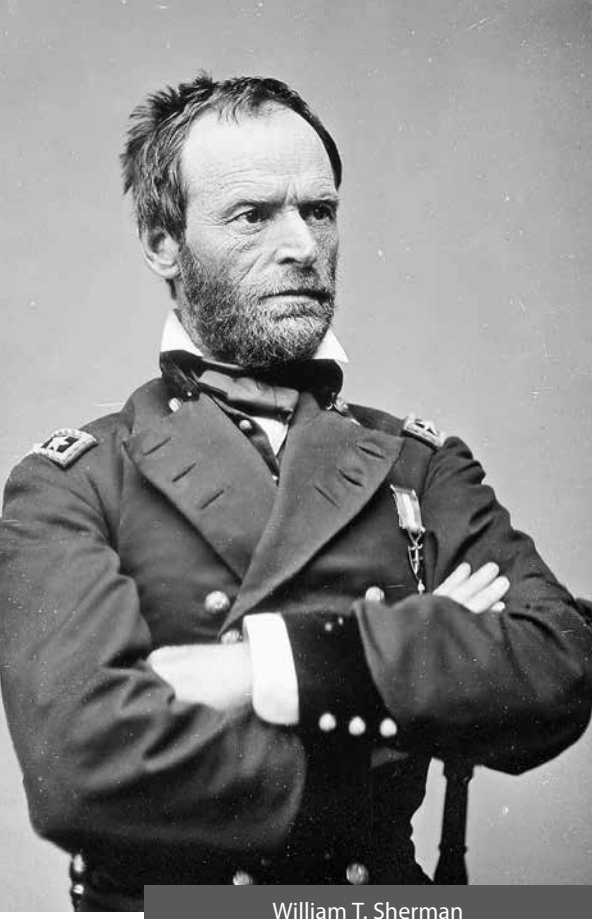
Believing that a successful campaign from the Gulf coast to the national capital would force the Mexican commander, General Antonio López de Santa Anna, to concede defeat, President Polk launched **General Scott's Mexico City Campaign**. The American Army of 12,000 regulars and volunteers traveled by sea to the port of Veracruz. On 9 March 1847, it conducted the first major amphibious landing in the U.S. Army's history. After a twelve-day siege that included a massive combined Army-Navy barrage, the Mexican garrison surrendered.

On 18 April, Scott's Army fought Santa Anna's force at Cerro Gordo and routed it. Though victorious, Scott found it necessary to detach a garrison at Puebla to deal with guerrillas threatening his line of communications to Veracruz, and to protect the sick and wounded unable to travel with the Army. After the Battles of Contreras and



Churubusco—both American victories—Scott and Santa Anna agreed to a cease-fire. They opened peace negotiations, which broke down on 6 September. After victories in the Battles of Molino del Rey and Chapultepec—a colonial-era castle taken by frontal assault—the Americans occupied Mexico City on 14 September. Though defeated, Santa Anna sought to cut off Scott's Army from the coast by laying siege to Puebla, but the Mexican commander's inability to feed his troops resulted in the disintegration of his army.

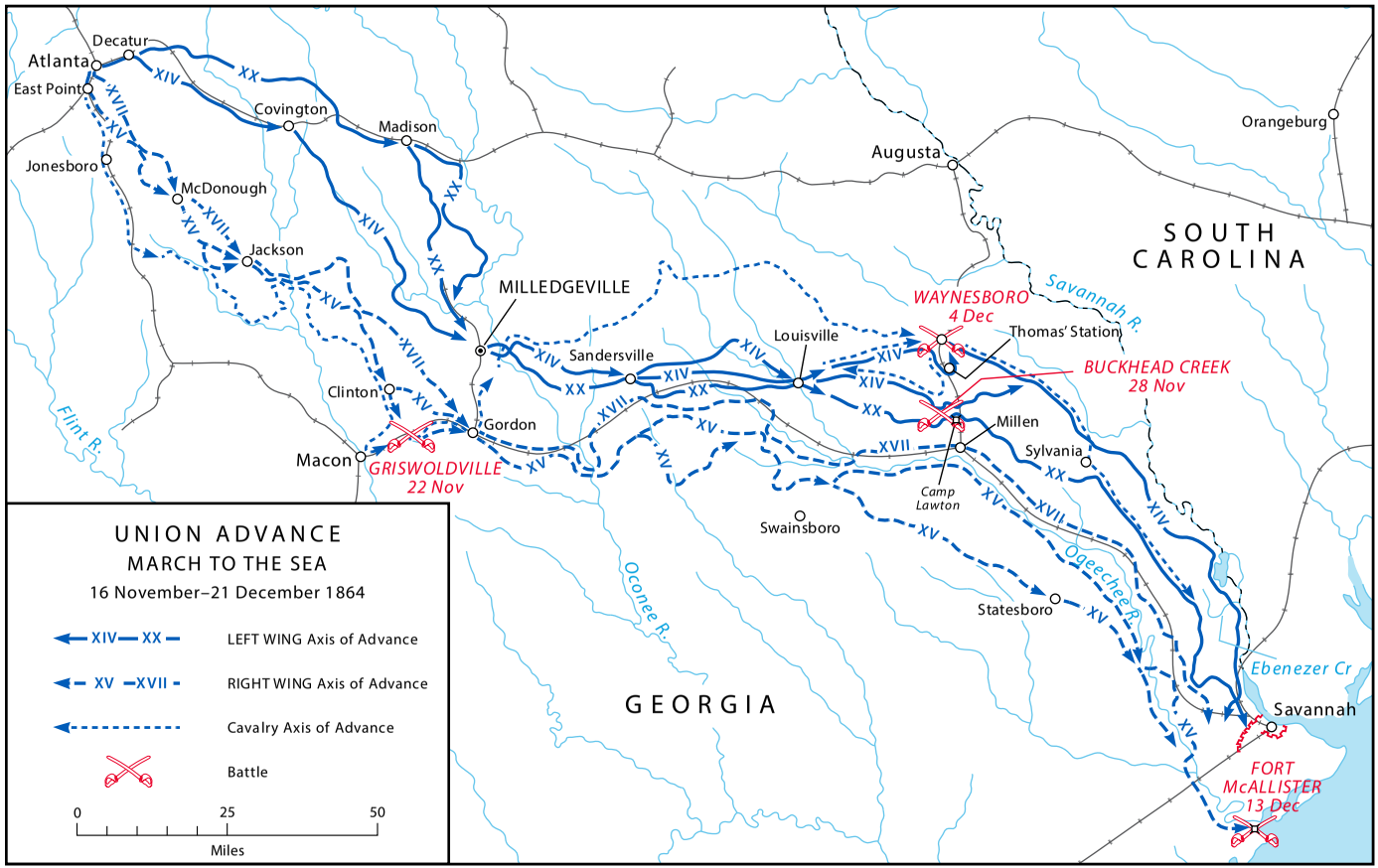
Victory brought fresh problems for the Americans. For the first time in its history, the Army became an occupation force in a foreign capital, faced with the need to form a military government and restore order. As for Scott, he not only served as the military governor of Mexico City, but also became a national hero and a presidential hopeful.



William T. Sherman
(*National Archives*)

Maj. Gen. William T. **Sherman's March to the Sea** is the most notable example of his hard war strategy, which he brought to bear in the final year of the Civil War. From 15 November to 21 December 1864, Sherman's army group of 60,000 soldiers cut a swath through the center of Georgia, marching 285 miles from Atlanta to Savannah. Having severed his line of communications, the commanding general issued these standing orders for the campaign: "The army will forage liberally on the country." The soldiers zealously obeyed his directive. Sherman estimated that his forces consumed or destroyed $100 million worth of civilian property—about $1.6 billion in 2020 dollars. By damaging or destroying farms, factories, and railroads, Sherman's Army group hastened the collapse of the Confederate war effort. Sherman argued that he was "not only fighting hostile armies, but a hostile people." His intent was to show Georgia civilians that the Confederate government could not protect them from "the hard hand of war," and that their only recourse was to demand an immediate end to hostilities.

Sherman's hard war strategy proved so successful that he used it on his march through the Carolinas in early 1865. In fact, South Carolina received even harsher treatment than Georgia did, for Sherman's troops were determined to make the Palmetto State suffer for being the "Cradle of Secession"—the first state to secede from the United States.


Decatur
Atlanta
East Point
Jonesboro
McDonough
Jackson
Covington
Madison
MILLEDGEVILLE
Sandersville
Clinton
Gordon
Macon
GRISWOLDVILLE
22 Nov
Flint R.
Louisville
WAYNESBORO
4 Dec
Thomas' Station
BUCKHEAD CREEK
28 Nov
Millen
Sylvania
Camp
Lawton
Swainsboro
Statesboro
Ogeechee R.
Ebenezer Cr
Savannah
FORT
McALLISTER
13 Dec
Oconee R.
Savannah R.
Augusta
Orangeburg
SOUTH
CAROLINA
GEORGIA
UNION ADVANCE
MARCH TO THE SEA
16 November–21 December 1864
LEFT WING Axis of Advance
RIGHT WING Axis of Advance
Cavalry Axis of Advance
Battle
0
25
50
Miles

Map 7


CENTER OF MILITARY HISTORY
1918
UNITED STATES ARMY